

Modular Arithmetic, Multiplicative Inverse

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CS 0220 2024

March 4, 2024

Overview

- 1 The Pulverizer (8.2.2)
- 2 Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic (8.4)
- 3 Modular Arithmetic (8.5)
- 4 A brief philosophical digression

GCD Linear Combination Theorem

Theorem: The greatest common divisor of a and b is a linear combination of a and b .

That is, $\gcd(a, b) = s \cdot a + t \cdot b$ for some integers s and t .

Proof: We'll do strong induction on the claim $P(a)$, for all $b \geq a$, $\gcd(a, b) = s \cdot a + t \cdot b$.

Base case: If $a = 0$, $\gcd(a, b) = b = 0 \cdot a + 1 \cdot b$.

Inductive step: Let $b = q \cdot a + r$. Equivalently, $r = 1 \cdot b - q \cdot a$.

$\gcd(a, b)$	$= \gcd(r, a)$	Remainder thm.	
	$= s \cdot r + t \cdot a$	Inductive hyp.	
	$= s \cdot (1 \cdot b - q \cdot a) + t \cdot a$	Defn of r	QED.
	$= (t - sq) \cdot a + s \cdot b$	Algebra.	

Computing the linear combination

We can use this theorem as an algorithm to find the linear combination of a and b that produces their GCD. Returns (s, t, g) where g is the GCD of the input.

```
def gcdcombo( $a, b$ ):  
    if  $a = 0$ : return( $0, 1, b$ )  
    else:  
        ( $s, t, g$ ) = gcdcombo( $\text{rem}(b, a), a$ )  
        return( $t - s \cdot \text{qcnt}(b, a), s, g$ )
```

- $\text{gcdcombo}(0, 15) = (0, 1, 15)$
- $\text{gcdcombo}(10, 15) = (-1, 1, 5)$
- $\text{gcdcombo}(24, 64) = (3, -1, 8)$

Computing By Hand

<i>a</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>q</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>g</i>
24	64				

```
def gcdcombo(a, b):
    if a = 0: return(0, 1, b)
    else:
        (s, t, g) = gcdcombo(rem(b, a), a)
        return(t - s · qcnt(b, a), s, g)
```

Do the rems going down, then the weights going up. Note that, at every level:
 $sa + tb = g$ (sanity check!).

Computing By Hand

a	b	q	s	t	g
24	64	2	3	-1	8
16	24	1	-1	1	8
8	16	2	1	0	8
0	8		0	1	8

Do the rems going down, then the weights going up. Note that, at every level:
 $sa + tb = g$ (sanity check!).

Pulvarizing

Corollary: An integer is a linear combination of a and b iff it is a multiple of $\gcd(a, b)$.

Proof (for reference):

Let $g = \gcd(a, b)$. We showed $g = sa + tb$ for some s and t . Any multiple of g is a linear combination of a and b : $kg = k(sa + tb) = (ks)a + (kt)b$.

We know $a = k_1g$ and $b = k_2g$ because g is a common divisor of a and b . Any linear combination of a and b is a multiple of g : $s'a + t'b = s'(k_1g) + t'(k_2g) = (s'k_1 + t'k_2)g$.

Mixing a and b in different combinations, we can only make multiples of g .

Note: The combinations are not unique: $sa + tb = (s - b)a + (t + a)b$.

Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Theorem: Every integer greater than 1 is a product of a unique non-increasing sequence of primes.

Lemma: If p is a prime and $p|ab$, then $p|a$ or $p|b$.

Proof of Lemma: One case is if $\gcd(a, p) = p$. Then, the claim holds, because a is a multiple of p .

Otherwise, $\gcd(a, p) \neq p$. In this case, $\gcd(a, p)$ must be 1, since 1 and p are the only positive divisors of p . Since $\gcd(a, p)$ is a linear combination of a and p , we have $1 = sa + tp$ for some s, t . Then, $b = s(ab) + (tb)p$; that is, b is a linear combination of ab and p . Since p divides both ab and p , it also divides their linear combination, b . QED.

Proof of Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic

Lemma: Let p be a prime. If $p|a_1a_2 \cdots a_n$, then p divides some a_i .

Proof: Every positive integer can be expressed as a product of primes. (Proved by strong induction!) We need to show this expression is unique. We proceed by contradiction: Assume there exist positive integers that can be written as products of primes in more than one way. Take the smallest such integer n and let $n = p_1p_2 \cdots p_j = q_1q_2 \cdots q_k$ be the two decompositions. Arrange them in non-increasing order and assume without loss of generality that $p_1 \leq q_1$. If $p_1 = q_1$, the remaining part of the product is smaller than n and different, which is a contradiction (n was the smallest).

Note that all the p_i s are less than q_1 . But $q_1|n$ and $n = p_1p_2 \cdots p_j$, so q_1 divides one of the p_i s, which contradicts the fact that q_1 is bigger than all them. QED.

Congruence definition

Definition: a is *congruent to b modulo n* iff $\text{rem}(b, n) = \text{rem}(a, n)$. Equivalently, $n \mid (a - b)$.

We write $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$.

$29 \equiv 15 \pmod{7}$ because $7 \mid (29 - 15)$, namely 14. Both have a remainder of 1 when divided by 7.

Equivalence relation—partitions the integers.

Transitivity, reflexivity, symmetry.

Basic modular algebra

In regular algebra,

$$a = b \text{ implies} \\ a + c = b + c.$$

Can we do the same in congruence-land? $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$
 $a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{n}.$

Yes!

$$a \equiv b \pmod{n} \text{ iff } n|(a - b) \text{ iff } \exists k, kn = a - b \text{ iff } \exists k, kn = a - b + (c - c) \text{ iff} \\ \exists k, kn = (a + c) - (b + c) \text{ iff } n|((a + c) - (b + c)) \text{ iff } a + c \equiv b + c \pmod{n}.$$

Multiplication is repeated addition, so we can also multiply both sides by a constant. By transitivity, we can always add or multiply each side by values that are congruent!
 “Clock arithmetic”.

Example

$$2x + 17 \equiv x + 31 \pmod{12}$$

$$2x \equiv x + 14 \pmod{12} \quad \text{add } -17 \text{ to both sides}$$

$$2x \equiv x + 2 \pmod{12} \quad \text{add } 0 \text{ to left and } -12 \text{ to right}$$

$$x \equiv 2 \pmod{12} \quad \text{add } -x \text{ to both sides}$$

Double check. $4 + 17 = 21$ vs. 33 . Difference is 12, check!

$$3x + 4 \equiv 27 \pmod{11}$$

$$3x \equiv 23 \pmod{11} \quad \text{add } -4 \text{ to both sides}$$

Kind of stuck because we don't (yet) have a "divide both sides by 3" rule.

So, what about division?

If $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$, can we divide both sides by c ?

$$7 \equiv 28 \pmod{3}$$

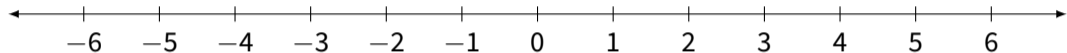
$$1 \equiv 4 \pmod{3} \quad \text{divide by 7}$$

So, maybe? At least if the answers are integers?

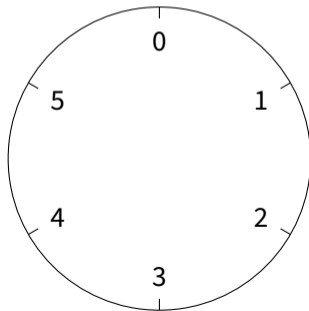
Is division even meaningful more generally?

Equivalent integers or equal “mod-integers”?

We’ve just introduced “equivalence mod n ” as a relation on \mathbb{Z} .



But we can also think about the “set of integers mod n .”



Equivalent integers or equal “mod-integers”?

What's the difference? How do we get from one to the other? What structure do they have in common?

For much deeper thoughts here, take a course on *abstract algebra*!